government's increasing concern for the improvement of water supplies was reflected in a diminution in the number of recorded cases from 1,274 in 1949 to a low of 562 in 1950. 164 264

The relative prevalence of paratyphoid fevers is uncertain, since the differential diagnosis is seldom confirmed by laboratory examination. Paratyphoid B infections apparently predominate. Cases of paratyphoid A fever are sometimes seen in the hospitals, and, in the opinion of local observers, are typically serious. *Salmonella kirschfeldii* (C) is also reported from this region. 164

Mass immunization with typhoid-paratyphoid A and B vaccine is undertaken by the health officials in all communities from which cases have been notified. Immunization is also carried out routinely each year in the government schools in urban districts and in the child health centers. 751

Dysenteries. Dysentery ranks with typhoid fever as a major public health problem in Lebanon. The insanitary methods of sewage disposal in towns and villages, the abundance of flies and the widespread use of night soil as fertilizer promote the spread of bacillary and amebic infections through contaminated food and water supplies. In the official statistics for the 2 years 1947 and 1948, the deaths listed under the group heading, dysentery, averaged about 11 per cent of the total recorded deaths.[24] 164 264 136 241

In a survey reported in 1939,[29] *Endamoeba histolytica* was identified in from 10 to 16 per cent of the fecal specimens from the inhabitants of three widely separated rural villages in the Lebanon Mountains, the Bekaa and the southern littoral. Competent authorities in Beirut believe that the carrier rate is normally higher, however, and that it may reach 50 to 75 per cent among the adults in some sections of the population. Acute amebiasis is common, and accounts for about 10 per cent of all the cases of dysentery treated in the local hospitals. 164

Bacillary infections, a large proportion of 164 136

p. 123(A)

63:Simmons et al G-5 (1941-1951) 1954
M1 Middle East
LEBANON ME 1

and Sidon were roughly comparable. In a series of 1,151 complement fixation tests on miscellaneous human serums sent to the Wassermann laboratory of the University hospital, 7 per cent gave a positive reaction with Q fever antigen.

SUMMARY

Lebanon, formerly one of the French-mandated Levant states, has been an independent republic since 1943. It is a compact territory, with an estimated population in 1948 slightly in excess of 1,229,500 and a density of roughly 300 inhabitants per square mile. Unlike the surrounding Arab countries, the Christian and the Moslem elements of the population are almost equal in collective numerical strength and political importance.

Responsibility for the health of the people resides in the Ministry of Public Health of the Lebanese government, which acts in co-operation with other ministries and numerous philanthropic and religious organizations. The public health and the medical care functions of the Ministry are directed from Beirut. The city is one of the leading medical centers of the Near and Middle East, with two university medical schools and associated hospitals. In 1948, there were 73 hospitals (including sanatoria) in the country, with an aggregate capacity of 5,181 beds, or approximately 4.2 beds per 1,000 population. Eight hospitals were maintained by the Ministry of Public Health, while 56 were conducted under private or philanthropic auspices and 9 by foreign organizations. In addition to the outpatient services of the hospitals, a central polyclinic, 17 rural dispensaries and 4 tuberculosis clinics were operated by the Ministry; a polyclinic by the municipal health department in Beirut; 16 dispensaries by the Lebanese Red Cross; and various units by other organizations.

Water supplies are derived from streams, springs or wells, and are usually abundant in the coastal region but often deficient in the interior. Treated municipal water sup-

plies are available in Beirut, Tripoli and some of the mountain resort towns, but many well and spring sources are unprotected and subject to pollution. Sewerage systems exist in parts of Beirut and Tripoli, but primitive methods of sewage disposal are employed in most towns and villages. The standards of food sanitation vary; the enforcement of sanitary regulations devolves upon the municipal health organization in Beirut and upon the government in other parts of the country.

The most prominent disease problems are malaria, typhoid fever, dysentery and trachoma. Tuberculosis, pneumonia, venereal diseases, rheumatic fever, helminthiasis and skin infections are common. Hookworm infection is prevalent in localized foci.

p. 132 (A)

9:Lebanon G-S (1952)1953 ME1 Lebanon ME1

Farm Organization

The isolated farmhouse, typical of agriculture in the United States, is rarely seen in Lebanon. 361
In the five project villages nearly all farmers live in the dei'ah or built-up area. Their wooden plows, harnesses, and other farm equipment are stored each day in their houses in the dei'ah. Often a stable is connected to or is part of the living quarters to take care of the family cow or other livestock. The concentration of dwellings in one area in the Middle East often results in a considerable expenditure of time in walking to fields located sometimes two to five miles from the village. In the project villages the land lies in a narrow strip. Farms at the far ends require an hour or more to reach by walking.

The share-tenant or small landowner has a cow or two which he depends on for draft and 231
milk, a simple wooden plow, and a few other simple hand tools. These comprise his capital equip- 592
ment. The field work is shared by all the members of the family, although in this shee'ah moslem 462
area there is a fairly rigid division of labor between the sexes. Plowing is a man's work, while rarely will a man be seen carrying water from the village fountain.

In the project area no evidence is seen of tractors, harrows, mechanical threshers, or other 407
mechanized farm equipment except on one or two large farms operated by non-resident owners. 365
None of the project villages has electric power. Farm organization is based upon an intensive use 464
of labor rather than capital. Low wage rates and an ample supply of laborers combine to make 465
the use of labor more advantageous than mechanization. In 1952 the prevailing rate for farm laborers was LL. 3 (about 85 cents) for men and half that for women per 12 to 15 hour day.

Most of the project villages have a plot of land called the beidar where the villagers, often 423
working in common, thresh their grain. Here the wheat or other seed crop is placed after it is 476
brought from the fields. For month after month in the summer, one finds the oxen pulling behind 241
them a mauraj, a flat board the underside of which is dotted with protruding stones or jagged pieces of metal. The farmer's wife or a small boy rides on this and with a stick directs the oxen over a layer of grain. In this way the kernels of grain are loosened and the straw is cut fine for fodder. In 241
order to separate the kernels of grain from the chaff, the farmer tosses the mixed grain and chaff

434 It is evident that in all the villages the great majority of the breadwinners must depend on sources of income other than their own fields. Therefore, younger members of the family seek income outside of the village, while the farmer himself must work part-time for one of the larger landlords or the oil company, hold a government job, get money from abroad, or subsist on a very low level.

Physical Description of Project Villages

392 It is not possible to describe with statistical accuracy the «average village home» in the project 365 area. A very general description must suffice until more detailed information is available. Homes are usually one-story stone structures of one or two rooms. They do not have electricity or running water. Usually the animals are accomodated in a stable connected to the house, or in a room in the house itself.

364 The villagers do not seem to be concerned with keeping their surroundings sanitary. In none 514 of the villages is there any attempt to collect and properly dispose of garbage. The uniform practice 744 is to «throw it in the fields». There are few toilets. Stone walls and fields close to town attest to 515 means commonly used for sewage disposal. To serve the 5,645 people in the project area there are 82 pit privies. There are no tubs or showers. Homes have no screens and flies are free to contaminate food and mosquitoes to torment and transmit disease.

515 Homes are nearly always neat and clean and the people attempt to clothe themselves decently 60? with well-scrubbed garments. Though extremely poor, the village family is very hospitable and 574 insists on sharing with a guest its meager supply of cigarettes or treasured coffee and sugar.

361 In the five project villages there are 1,100 buildings. This number includes 912 dwelling units, 34 business establishments, 143 separate barns and 11 public buildings. A detailed break-down of the types of buildings by village is shown in Table VIII. Included in the category of public buildings are seven mosques. Sarafand and En-Nsariyah have two mosques each, while in each

427 monthly (39 %) or yearly (30 %). When the owner and those not paying rent are subtracted, we find relatively few (6 %) who have other contract terms.

7.14 Location of kitchen facilities by privacy, Table 107

342 In investigating the adequacies of households in Beirut it was found that nine-tenths of the enumerated households had private kitchen facilities in the house. Cooking outside the house was principally for one-room shacks.

7.15 Location of toilet facilities in household, Table 108

[574] Toilet facilities in the buildings were found in over ninety percent of the sample. Of these, almost nine-tenths are private toilets. Arab types are found overwhelmingly.

7.16 Source of water in household, Table 109

312 365 Water, too, is piped into the overwhelming majority of houses (93 %) making relatively few who were forced to obtain water from outdoor cisterns or from more fortunate neighbors. In some cases, such as the agglomeration of tin shacks, a city faucet is the only source of water.

7.17 Type of lighting in household, Table 110

354 365 Lighting is by electricity in over nine-tenths of the households in the sample. Charateristically, electrical fixtures are ceiling lights suspended by cords. Lamps are used much less than in western cities, even where wall plugs are available. Less electricity is delivered to households due to a shortage of generating capacity. Almost all of the remaining households use oil lamps.

7.18 Type of heating in household, Table 111

354 Charcoal burners are the sole means of heat in over half of the houses (57 %). One-fifth of the houses have no means of heat; this is not surprising considering the relatively mild cli-

18; Churchill S-5 (1962) 1954 MEI Lebanon MEI

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Table 110

Type of Lighting in Household

Kind of lighting	Number	Percent	sp.
Total	1825	100.00	
Natural only	12	0.66	
Electricity	1664	91.18	.006
Candles	1	0.05	
Oil	148	8.11	.006

Table 111

Type of Heating in Household

Type of heating	Number	Percent	sp.
Total	1990 *	100.00	
Central	27	1.36	
Charcoal	1142	57.39	.011
Kerosene	56	2.81	.004
Fuel Oil	39	1.96	.003
Electric	193	9.70	.007
Wood	102	5.12	.005
Butagas	3	0.15	
Other	2	0.10	
None	405	20.35	.009
No answer	21	1.06	

* Total is larger because some families have more than one means of heating.

16:Gulick E-5 (1952)1954 ME1 Lebanon ME1

to the term, is impossible under present circumstances. The most important crops are olives, figs, and grapes, none of which requires irrigation in the growing season. The orchards and vineyards grow on terraced land which is situated generally on the lower parts of the ridge slopes and at the heads of the wadis. Some vegetables and a few small orchards of mulberries (remnants of the once predominant cash crop—silk) grow immediately adjacent to the houses.

Al-Munsif can be seen from a distance quite some time before the traveler enters it. The houses, varying in color from white to gray to tawny, are perched, one directly above another, it seems, on the southern slope of the ridge — a few are on the crest itself, at its highest point. They number about 90 and are typical of the Lebanese countryside. About one-quarter of them have the pitched roofs of red tile and other architectural features which are reminders of the decades before World War I. The majority, however, are of a much more ancient style, with few windows and a flat roof made of timbers and a thick layer of packed earth. In some cases, the old earth roofs have been recently replaced by cement ones. A few houses have been built completely anew in recent years, but with two exceptions they are not particularly different in general style from the older ones. Household furnishings and equipment show the unmistakable influence of industrialized Europe and America — mostly the former. Kerosene pressure lanterns and stoves have almost completely replaced older forms. Bedsteads, wardrobes, tables, and chairs — all of European manufacture and/or design — are used in every house. However, the village has no electricity and no system of running water.

From the observation of physical externals, one may easily deduce that al-Munsif partakes both of the traditional and of the recently imported (that is, since the late 19th century). It therefore reflects the tumultuous culture change which at present colors life in Lebanon and in the Middle East generally. But material aspects of culture are only fragmentary indications of behavior. In themselves, they reveal little of a specific nature concerning motivations, loyalties, hopes, fears, and expectations. How did al-Munsif, as a community of people, come into being? What are its traditional foundations of life? How, and to what extent, have its traditions been altered by the far-reaching cultural changes of the late 19th and 20th centuries? What problems face its people as a result of these changes?

II

According to tradition, al-Munsif was established by a man who came to the site from Jabal Hawran in Syria, after a sojourn in Baalbek. All the 523 members of the village are believed to be direct descendants of the founder, a belief which is indicated in a genealogy which is in the possession of the priest. There is some disagreement among the villagers on details